DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 250 596 CG 017 795

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TITLE Why Counseling?
INSTITUTION American Personnel and Guidance Association, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 82
NOTE 34p.
AVAILABLE FROM American Association for Counseling and Development, Publication Sales, 5999 Stevenson Ave., Alexandria, VA 22304 ($4.25 member; $5.25 non-member).
PUB TYPE Legal/Legislative/Regulatory Materials (090) -- Viewpoints (120)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Counseling Effectiveness; *Counseling Services; *Counselor Characteristics; *Counselors; Counselor Training; Geographic Regions; *Guidance Programs; Individual Needs; Position Papers

ABSTRACT

This monograph on the status of guidance and counseling in the United States is taken from the author's 1982 testimony to the Subcommittee on Education, Arts, and Humanities of the Senate Labor and Human Resources Committee. International and national perspectives on guidance and counseling are addressed, and geographic differences in guidance and counseling services are discussed. The present quality of counselors is described with an emphasis on the characteristics of effective counselors. Long-term and individual gains from exposure to counseling are delineated. The role of counseling in decision making, career planning, school achievement, racial integration in education, work transitions, and in helping special populations (e.g., juvenile delinquents, mentally handicapped youth, and disadvantaged youth) is highlighted. The monograph concludes with a discussion of the cost-benefit perspectives on guidance and counseling, counselor training, and on the need for school counselors. (BL)

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Why Counseling?

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Falls Church, Virginia 22041

Printed in the United States of America

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FOREWORD

On April 28, 1982, the author addressed the U.S. Senate Labor and Human Resources Committee's Subcommittee on Education, Arts, and Humanities, chaired by Senator Robert T. Stafford of Vermont. Edwin L. Herr presented his statement as part of the Subcommittee's Oversight Hearings on Guidance and Counseling. Dr. Herr's remarks to the Subcommittee were made on behalf of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA).

In addition to being the President-Elect of APGA, Dr. Herr is also a professor of education and Head of the Division of Counseling and Educational Psychology at The Pennsylvania State University. His impressive 26-year career has included work as a public school teacher, a teacher–counselor, a school counselor, and a local director of guidance. He was the first Director of the Bureaus of Guidance Services and of Pupil Personnel Services in the Pennsylvania Department of Education. Since 1968 Dr. Herr has been engaged in the training of counselors and in research and scholarly activities related to guidance and counseling both in the United States and in countries around the world.

This monograph on the status of guidance and counseling in the United States is taken from Dr. Herr's testimony before the Subcommittee.

International Perspectives on Guidance and Counseling

Britain, France, Germany, Japan, the Scandinavian nations, the Phillipines, Nigeria, and many other nations are considering the role that guidance and counseling can play in achieving national goals for educational access and achievement, transition from school to work, effective citizenship, and work productivity. These governments have become increasingly aware that the major questions related to industrial development, economic change, and technological complexity are not technical questions, but human questions. As the emotional and motivational aspects of life in these societies intensify under the influence of rapid change, and as the social, educational, and occupational structures become more diversified, nations are increasingly turning to the implementation of guidance and counseling systems of some form to assist their populations with the personal questions and the needs for information that arise in such circumstances.

The precise form of guidance and counseling and the assumptions on which this form is based vary from nation to nation depending upon their political belief system, their level of economic or industrial development, and their cultural traditions. Some societies view guidance and counseling as national instruments by which to increase the size or quality of the manpower pool or to extend the provision of human capital in other ways defined by the state. Other societies view guidance and counseling as principally instruments of personal development, freedom of choice, and self-actualization. In some nations guidance and counseling are viewed in both of these ways, although the prevailing emphasis may be on social control, social change, the development of human capital, or individual development

Guidance and Counseling in the United States

In their current levels of development, guidance and counseling in some countries are little more than selection and classification processes devised to

separate citizens into areas serving the national interest. Guidance and counseling in the United States, at least in its philosophical tenets, has derived from a different tradition. Here the primary emphasis is on the individual's capability for self-direction in the light of social and moral values defined within a belief system that opportunity exists, that challenge confronts him or her, that personal effort will have personal meaning. A major, if implicit, premise of such a view is that individuals have an obligation to develop their potentiality, to become the best persons their strengths and resources permit.

Thus, as school counselors employ testing, individual and group counseling, information about educational and occupational opportunities, skill-building workshops and related activities, their goals are not to classify and channel individuals into rigidly defined occupational or training quotas. Rather, the intent is to help these individuals gain intelligence about their personal characteristics and possibilities, understand their multipotentiality, become educated to choose, and plan constructive action. Before the school counselor can get to such goals, however, it is often necessary to help students cope with their changing and perhaps neglectful family situations, discontinuities and personal crises, loss of a parent, substance abuse, or inadequate psychological or economic resources to sustain the student through secondary school and into the next life stage.

This kind of philosophical attention to individual needs has not precluded a role for guidance and counseling in human capital development in the United States. For example, within the context of individual freedom of choice we rightly prize in this nation, the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1958 gave guidance and counseling its major place in U.S. schools. Concerned about Soviet scientific progress, U.S. leaders wanted to identify young people of scientific talent and encourage them to enter the study of the physical sciences in colleges and universities. Guidance and counseling processes and practitioners were seen as mechanisms to increase particular types of human capital needed for the nation's security and progress. While many other corollary outcomes ensued as a result of the effects of the National Defense Education Act—vastly expanded counselor training opportunities, major research programs designed to study the most effective ways of training counselors, new insights into measurement of individual characteristics and career behavior, the growing acceptance of school counselors as having major contributions to the achievement of education objectives—counselors made major contributions during the 1960s and 1970s to helping the United States achieve the scientific goals implicit in the original NDEA legislation.

Since the rather heady days of the National Defense Education Act, guidance and counseling have been identified in many pieces of national legislation as methods of dealing with the problems of economically disadvantaged students, sexual and racial discrimination, vocational education students choosing curriculum or jobs, handicapped students being mainstreamed

in American education, and related problems such as career education, school vandalism, underachievement, and so forth. A brief analysis of the content of the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and its related amendments, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Education for all Handicapped Children Act, and related state and national legislation, suggests the importance guidance and counseling have had in responding to many of the nation's problems. While each of these pieces of legislation has acknowledged that guidance and counseling has a personal development emphasis, it also has assumed a guidance and counseling role in effectively increasing America's human capital.

At another level, it is important to acknowledge that these are diverse and complex expectations to lay on a group of specialists whose primary models of training and major presence in schools are products of less than 30 years duration. That is not a long history in which to develop the skills and the wisdom that the federal and state mandates expect, particularly when expectations rapidly change, funding for in-service or pre-service training is withdrawn or not available, and policy directions and advocacy in the U.S. Office of Education vis-à-vis guidance and counseling are diffuse and relatively uncoordinated. Indeed, since the late 1960s there has not been a centralized guidance and counseling unit in the U.S. Office of Education to integrate the expectations for guidance and counseling appearing across legislative pieces into a coherent fabric, to assist states and counselor training institutions in responding systematically to changing and sometimes conflicting pieces of legislation, and to provide advocacy for and leadership in meeting such challenges. In spite of these conditions, guidance and counseling have performed effectively in areas of major national concern.

Geographic Differences in Guidance and Counseling

If one moves beyond the federal level, it becomes obvious that the states differ in their leadership and in their support of guidance and counseling. Because of the regional diversity in size, resources, and other forms of support across the expanse of this nation, talking about a typical school counselor or a typical guidance and counseling program in action is difficult. In some instances, a town may have just one school counselor who moves from school to school dealing with a range of student, teacher, and parent problems. Sometimes the school counselor (regardless of educational level, although the secondary is the most typical) is the only mental health professional in a town or region. In other instances, the school counselor is one of several such persons in a school and is supported by a psychologist, social worker, health personnel, and community referral sources. Some school districts have

separately trained elementary, middle school, and senior high school counselors; some school districts have a school counselor(s) who serves all grade levels.

What school counselors do is ultimately shaped by the characteristics of the local school district in which they are employed. This situation in no way implies that professional role descriptions have no bearing on practice; rather, the point is to acknowledge that the vagaries of geographic diversity provide school counselors with differently organized realities across communities, settings, and populations.

As the missions of schools across the nation have changed to accommodate major shifts in other aspects of society—for example, the decline of extended kinship systems, the erosion of family stability, the diminished impact of the institutionalized church—school counselors have been pressed to serve in situations and with populations of changing needs and differing circumstances. Therefore, because of the differences among students in socialization, cultural traditions, resources, and opportunities, it is difficult to argue that the expectations of the school counselor working in an affluent suburb are or should be precisely the same as those of the school counselor employed amid the poverty of the inner city. Likewise, it is difficult to argue that the school counselor working with White middle-class children can operate in a standardized way or in precisely the same manner as school counselors working with White children from welfare families in the inner city, Black families in rural areas, Chicano children in migrant camps, or Native Americans on reservations. When such realities are combined with the effects on male and female choice of role or other stereotypes, the physical and psychological effects of neglect and abuse of children, and many other conditions with which school counselors work, geographic diversity and differences in expectations of school counselors across subpopulations in the society are major elements that need to be considered in any appraisal of the state of the art of guidance and counseling in this country.

The State of the Art in Guidance and Counseling

These prefatory remarks are intended to identify some of the complexity both of implementing guidance and counseling in the schools and of discussing the results in precise terms. In spite of this complexity, the best evidence available suggests that school counselors are functioning at all educational levels and making significant contributions to the resolution of many national, educational, social, and occupational priorities. Before turning to some of the research results relating to these matters, let me respond to some related questions.

What is the Present Quality of Guidance Counselors?

There is no way to answer the question of the quality of present day guidance counselors in an abstract sense. The question must be posed in terms of specific expectations of their ability to assist students, teachers, or parents with particular problems or choices. Thus, one must turn to the available research base to answer such questions as: What kinds of outcomes do guidance and counseling yield? Who is helped and in what way? Can one show that persons who experience guidance and counseling get along any better in their lives than those who do not?

Acknowledging that research about guidance and counseling is not so comprehensive nor as unequivocal as would be desired is appropriate. There are many reasons for this condition, among which is the fact that until recently school counselors did not feel the press to evaluate systematically what they were doing. Instead, they concentrated on implementing efforts and activities they believed to be valuable to children and youth. In addition, in their view evaluation takes time away from providing direct service to students, teachers, and parents. Further, the diversity of potential guidance and counseling effects on behavior requires a wide range of process and product evaluations. Frequently, training and resources necessary to accomplish such evaluations are not available in all school districts.

Nevertheless, a growing research base shows positive effects for guidance and counseling across population types and settings. These effects are true for both long-term and short-term gains on a large number of different criteria. Given the current status of research methodology, the findings available may, in fact, be conservative rather than inflated estimates of the effects of these processes.

Research bearing on the efficacy of guidance and counseling is widely distributed in professional literature, government documents, evaluation reports, and unpublished papers. Unfortunately, much of these data have not been assembled in a coherent matrix illuminating the extent to which the outcomes of guidance and counseling can be documented empirically. As a result, it is probably fair to suggest that the accumulated weight of evidence in favor of the demonstrated effects of guidance and counseling is larger than is known or systematically used.

In addition to the results of studies reported by category below, findings showing positive effects of guidance and counseling have been reported by evaluators concerned with the effects of government spending in support of guidance and counseling. For example, the 1975 annual report from the U.S. Office of Education, *Educational Programs That Work*, listed more than a dozen different counseling programs that had been evaluated by outside

evaluators as being effective (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1975). In *Innovative Educational Practice*, six effective counseling programs validated by Elementary and Secondary Education Act Title III evaluators were listed (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974). Similar findings have been reported in documents published by the Office of Career Education, U.S. Department of Education, the Rehabilitation Services Administration, and the Department of Labor.

The following sections (adapted from Herr, E. L., *Guidance and Counseling in the Schools*, Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1979, pp. 78–88) identify representative findings in some of the major categories of research on guidance and counseling.

Characteristics of the Effective Counselor

1. There are therapeutic and nontherapeutic counselors. Both groups can be identified and trained (unless personality defects preclude) to provide the conditions that produce constructive behavioral and personality change (Berenson & Carkuff, 1967).

2. Regardless of the different theoretical positions that guide the specific techniques used by particular counselors, counselors found to be therapeutic in their interactions with counselees tend to share many common characteristics (Herr, 1976).

3. Regardless of the theoretical position they were trained in or embraced as neophytes, experienced counselors tend to be more alike than different in their provision of certain interpersonal conditions (Berenson & Carkuff, 1967).

4. Whether conceived as wholly sufficient in their own right or as minimum essentials to effective counselor–counselee interactions, interpersonal skills basic to therapeutic counselors include the provision of accurate, empathic understanding, the communication of respect, nonpossessive warmth, personal genuineness, and concreteness or specificity of expression (Berenson & Carkhuff, 1967).

Long-term Gains from Exposure to Guidance

1. In longitudinal follow-ups as long as 25 years after exposure to counseling and related guidance processes persons so exposed in high school or in college can be distinguished from their peers who did not participate in guidance and counseling on such criteria as higher income and contributions to society (Campbell, 1968).

2. After 8 years there was a greatly increased correlation ($p > .001$) between high school senior year career choice and actual career followed for counseled groups compared with control groups (Wiggins, 1974).

3. In follow-up studies of high school students 2-1/2, 5, and 10 years after high school comparing those randomly assigned to extensive counseling and guidance services in high school (experimental) with those who were not excluded from such services but for whom no special attempts were made to involve them (controls), differences were found. Among such differences, experimental students had better academic records both in high school and after; they had made more realistic and more consistent vocational choices and were more likely to stick with their first choice; they had made more progress in their employment; they were more likely to have entered college and to have been graduated; and they were more satisfied with their lives (Merenda & Rothney, 1958).

4. Career adjustment at ages 25 and beyond is related to awareness of choices to be made; information and planning bearing on choices; and possessing and being able to use occupational, psychological, educational, and economic information by students while in the secondary school (Super, 1969).

Self-Esteem, Self-Concept, Interpersonal Relations, and Mental Health

1. Adolescent Black males who have been assisted through guidance and counseling to decide upon vocational objectives have been found to have more positive self-concepts than those who have not been so assisted (Higgins, 1976).

2. Studies of adolescents and young adults in rural areas showed that self-awareness activities, job-seeking skills activities, and peer interactions through group sessions, counseling, career materials displays, testing and information meetings caused observable positive changes in most of the participants (Paulsen, 1976).

3. As a function of behavioral modification techniques, it has been found that delinquent boys in a community based home tend to improve dramatically in self-esteem and from externality to internality as compared with a control group (Eitzen, 1975).

4. Students exposed to guidance processes tend to organize their concepts about themselves in a more coherent way and to reconcile their differences between ideal and real self-concepts more effectively than other persons (Tyler, 1969).

5. Middle school students exposed to guidance processes designed to improve their interpersonal skills experience improved general behavior and interpersonal relationships (Hutchins & Cole, 1977).

6. Elementary school children given relationship-enhancement training by an elementary school counselor improve more on empathic acceptance and relationship skills than children not so trained (Vogelson, 1978).

7. Planned guidance activities have been found to raise awareness and the self-concept of sixth-grade children independent of sex, IQ, or school achievement (Kaiser & Sillin, 1977).

8. Elementary school counselor consultation with parents has been found to affect positively the motivation, self-esteem, and anxiety score of Black elementary school students (Hayes, Cunningham, & Robinson, 1977).

9. Elementary school counselor consultation with teachers on esprit and intimacy has been found to show gains on self-perceptions and peer acceptance in the children they teach (Kameen & Brown, 1978).

10. Parent-training groups provided by elementary school counselors have been found to improve communication skills and have a meaningful impact on parent-child relationships (Hudgins & Stoudt, 1977).

11. Students who have been helped by counselors to evaluate, break into components, and master their problems one at a time gain self-confidence (Bennett, 1975; Herr, 1976).

12. Minority students who are assisted in deciding on vocational objectives are typically found to have more positive self-concepts and higher ideal selves than those who do not have such objectives (Higgins, 1976; Williams & Byers, 1968).

13. The degree of self-esteem possessed by students relates to the appropriateness of vocational choice and to high school achievement (O'Hara, 1966; Sievart, 1972).

14. A rise in the self-esteem of students exposed to guidance and other counseling processes is related to reduction in dropout rates, reductions in daily absence, and improvement in conduct and social adjustment (Herr, 1977a; Moracco & Kazandkian, 1977; Tyler, 1969).

Decision Making

1. Guidance processes do help students become more competent decision makers, select high school courses, and make high school plans more congruent with their abilities than is true of students not exposed to such processes (Tyler, 1969).

2. Guidance processes can help students sharpen and commit themselves to educational and occupational actions on the basis of personal values (Herr, 1978b).

3. Decision making processes can be taught to junior high and senior high school students within a guidance and counseling setting by using a variety of modeling techniques, sequential learning exercises, and activity packages (Bergland, Quatrano, & Lindquist, 1975; Herr, 1978b; Meyer, Strowig, & Hosford, 1970).

4. Directed learning by students of decision making processes is more effective than nondirected practice. Such directed learning aids in the transfer

of decision making skills to real-life circumstances outside of guidance and counseling settings (Evans & Cody, 1969).

5. Counseled students in the middle school have been found subsequently to make more realistic choices in choosing high school courses and seeking part-time work according to adult jury ratings (Randall, 1973).

6. Through group problem-solving methods, students can be helped to understand the relationship between educational and vocational development, clarify goals, and acquire skill in identifying and using relevant information for their decision making needs (Babcock & Kauffman, 1976; Krumboltz & Thoresen, 1964).

7. Men and women students with identifiable educational goals—reasons that are related to why they are doing what they are doing—seem consistently to be better prepared for college than students who have no such reasons for being in college (Herr & Cramer, 1968).

Career Planning

1. Students exposed to systematically planned career-guidance classes dealing with topics such as values clarification, decision making, job satisfaction, sources of occupational information, work-power projections, and career planning make greater gains on self-knowledge and the relations of self-knowledge to occupations and engage in a greater number of career-planning activities than students who have not participated in such classes (Egner & Jackson, 1978; Hamdani, 1977; Omvig, Tollocy, & Thomas, 1975).

2. Junior high school students provided guidance programs specifically designed to do so gain in knowledge and desire to explore nontraditional jobs as compared with control groups (Cramer, Wise, & Colburn, 1977).

3. Student users of computer-based career-guidance systems make greater gains on such characteristics as degree of planning, knowledge and use of resources for career exploration, awareness of career options open to them, and the costs or risks associated with these options than nonusers (Herr, 1978b; Myers, Lindeman, & Thompson, 1975).

4. Both individual counseling and group counseling that involve specific training in self-assessment, gathering pertinent career information, and planning skills can enhance student career planning (Stewart & Thoresen, 1968).

5. If students learn about themselves before they are exposed to occupational information or if they can request such information as they are ready, their career planning is significantly facilitated (Westbrook, 1974).

Career Development and Career Education

1. Systematic group guidance programs that emphasize women and work and entry to nontraditional and traditional occupations can expand the career perceptions of junior high school girls (Cramer, Wise, & Colburn, 1977).

2. Female senior high school students exposed to guidance programs emphasizing career awareness gain significant improvement in overall career awareness and in factual knowledge of the occupational status of women (Woodcock & Herma, 1978).

3. Short-term counseling (three sessions) with high school students has been found to facilitate the career maturity of these students with regard to emphases such as orientation to decision making, planning, and independence of choice (Flake, Roach, & Stenning, 1975).

4. Guidance films (e.g., "Careers in the 70s") have been found to affect high school students' attitudes positively, motivate them to seek additional information, and help them make career choices. These outcomes are strengthened when such films are used as part of a planned guidance program (Mitchell, 1971).

5. High school students exposed to model reinforcement and reinforcement counseling participate more intensely in external information-seeking behavior than students not so exposed (Hamilton & Bergland, 1972; Krumboltz & Thoresen, 1964).

6. The use of simulated occupational experience in guidance and counseling programs has positive effects on student occupational knowledge among secondary school students (Stewart & Thoresen, 1968).

7. On criterion measures in areas such as self-concept, the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, and other measures of academic achievement and school attendance, typically it is found that students exposed to career education do as well as or, in most studies, better than comparison students in traditional classes (Herr, 1978b).

School Achievement

1. In general, significant differences in academic achievement and in realistic choice of courses of study are found in favor of groups exposed to guidance and counseling as compared with those not so exposed (Herr, 1977a; Schmidt, 1976; Schmieding, 1966; Tyler, 1969).

2. Elementary school children taught behavior-change techniques by the elementary school counselor have been found to make greater academic gains than children in the control group on school attendance, school achievement, and social behavior (Downing, 1977).

3. Counseled students in the elementary school have been found to make better grades and parents report improved attitudes toward school during a 3-year period of time (Doyle, 1976; Herr, 1978b).

4. The importance of making a personal investment in a choice rather than simply accepting someone else's choice (e.g., parents, teachers) is a factor in academic success in college, and such behavior is aided by guidance processes (Herr & Cramer, 1968).

5. Either group or individual counseling extending for a reasonable amount of time helps students whose ability is adequate or better to improve their scholastic performance if they choose to participate in it. Better results are likely if guidance processes focus on the causes of underachievement and what can be done to correct them than if a more general approach is taken (Benson & Blocker, 1967; Schmidt, 1976).

6. Counselor teams that work closely with teachers, principals, and parents in dealing with emotional or social problems intefering with the use of their intellectual potential by children are helpful in increasing general levels of student academic achievement (Bertoldi, 1975; Philadelphia School District, 1976).

7. Guidance and counseling processes integrated with remedial instruction in mathematics and reading have been found to increase academic achievement significantly (Bertoldi, 1975; Calhoun, 1956).

Racial Integration in Education

1. Counselors who are specially trained to provide personal counseling, resolve interpersonal conflicts, and coordinate classes designed to improve students' human-relations skills and their understanding of different racial and ethnic groups do prevent or reduce racial prejudice and conflict in schools undergoing integration (Chick, 1968; Gordon, Brownell, & Brittell, 1972; Higgins, 1976).

2. Group counseling that focuses on problems of an interracial nature and the promotion of understanding and openness between students from different cultural backgrounds can create a relaxed atmosphere in a school and increase intergroup understanding (Brown, Strub, & Rainey, 1973).

3. As a function of studying 9,000 persons in 879 schools, it was found that counseling and counseling-support programs clearly correlated with positive racial-climate changes in newly desegregated schools. This finding was especially apparent in the number of interracial friendships formed, how students of different races worked together, how well teachers worked together, integration of students on the campus and in the cafeteria, and the attendance of Black students (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1972).

4. Affective education designed to improve racial understanding and provided by trained school counselors does achieve such a goal (Atkins, 1976).

5. Small face-to-face discussion groups led by experienced counselors can assist school personnel to explore their own attitudes, values, and feelings regarding ethnic differences. This personal understanding in addition to human relations and communication skill training is effective in facilitating intergroup relations and school desegregation (Brown, Strubb, & Rainey, 1973; Gordon, Brownell, & Brittell, 1972).

Transition to Work and Work Adjustment

1. Guidance and counseling processes can help the young worker sort out available work choices, consider personal commitments to work, and develop ways of deriving feelings of psychological competence in the work place (Aiken, Isenburg, Bales, Brewer, Goss, & Sackrison, 1976; Herr, 1977a).

2. Young workers who have been trained in job-search and interview skills and communication and human relations at work are more likely to make an effective transition to work than workers who have not (Aiken et al., 1976; Garbin, Salomone, Jackson, & Ballweg, 1968).

3. Behavior rehearsal in which young workers can act out or role play with a counselor specific work-related social and interpersonal problems is more effective in resolving such problems than direct advice (Lazarus, 1966).

4. For young persons—disadvantaged and others—preoccupied with economic issues, guidance and counseling focused on job placement is more effective than broader matters of work adjustment until after the persons secure a job and begin to work (Aiken et al., 1976; Herr, 1978).

5. Disadvantaged youth who participate in counseling are more likely to achieve salary increases and job satisfaction than those who do not (Herr, 1978d).

Juvenile Delinquents

1. Short-term professional counseling coupled with probation can have more immediate and lasting effects than probation alone (Lee & Olejnik, 1981).

2. The provision of adult basic education, general educational development, and vocational courses to institutionalized juvenile delinquents is likely to be more effective if career counseling is also offered than if it is not (Herrin & Muir, 1974; Lewis & Boyle, 1976; Valencia County Commission, 1974).

3. Lower rates of recidivism, truancy, running away, and ungovernability were found in delinquent children who had taken part in a Baltimore project providing counseling and support services including youth advocates to pre-delinquent and potentially delinquent children (Mayor's Office on Manpower Resources, 1974).

4. Chicago public schools have implemented dropout prevention programs in five high schools intended to prevent, control, and eliminate delinquent behavior through counseling, educational assistance, vocational training and placement, and recreational activites. The success of the program is reflected in a decline in the number of students actually dropping out of school or displaying delinquent behavior. Police records show a reduction in juvenile offenses and arrests. Counseling and discipline records show a decrease in violations of school rules (Buckner, 1976).

5. Counseling programs specifically combined with supportive instruction have been found to be successful in motivating truant, low income boys back to regular attendance in school (Buckner, 1976; Grala & McCauley, 1976).

6. Counseling and support services, including peer counseling, can reduce the rate of recidivism for truancy, running away, and ungovernability among predelinquent children (Dallas Police Department, 1975).

7. Specific programs designed to prevent, control, and eliminate dropouts or delinquent behavior should include combinations of educational assistance, vocational training and placement, and recreational activities and counseling (Buckner, 1976).

8. Individual counseling in combination with counselor-conducted training programs designed to emphasize the development of interpersonal, physical, emotional, and intellectual skills that can be applied to home, school, and community problems can reduce the recidivism rate for youthful offenders (Dallas Police Department, 1975).

Mentally Retarded Youth

1. Modeling and reinforcement counseling with educable retarded youngsters is effective in facilitating knowledge of how to get a job and in stimulating job-seeking behavior (Kreiger, 1969).

2. Counseling and testing in combination with training in basic job skills is effective in increasing employment or entrance into further career training among mentally retarded youth (Kreiger, 1969).

Disadvantaged Youth

1. Guidance and counseling for disadvantaged youth is effective when linked to a direct service such as job placement. In many circumstances, until the economic situation of disadvantaged youth is improved, the possibility of helping such youth with other areas of concern is unlikely (Pittman & McWhorter, 1974).

2. The combination of counseling with the use of indigenous role models who have succeeded in educational and occupational options is effective with inner-city youth (Lewis, 1975).

3. Comprehensive programs involving self-awareness activities, job-seeking skills, and peer interaction through group sessions, counseling, career materials displays, and testing and information meetings cause observable, positive changes among rural youth (Herr, 1978b; Meyer, Strowig, & Hosford, 1970; Paulsen, 1976).

Research in Guidance and Counseling—A Summary View

Several points regarding the foregoing research on guidance and counseling need to be made. First, the listing of areas in which positive findings have been demonstrated in behalf of guidance and counseling, while not exhaustive of all possibilities, correspond closely to those categories of social and economic problems that the Federal government and the mass media continue to cite as having high national priority. Such research findings go beyond philosophical appeal to demonstrate that support for and availability of guidance and counseling programs, services, and processes do make a difference in the lives of children and youth. Implicit in these research findings is another important matter: Guidance and counseling have utility across historical periods. Guidance and counseling have not become obsolete processes as social and economic problems change over time. Rather, the fundamental techniques and processes have utility in a wide area of human problems and can be applied and refined to respond to changing social conditions and values.

Cost–Benefit Perspectives on Guidance and Counseling

Each of the positive findings about guidance and counseling reported in the previous section carries with it cost–benefit implications. They may be reflected in the increased state support a school receives if a potential drop-out remains in school, in the reduced vandalism exerienced when students feel competent to handle their academic subject matter or when intergroup tensions are reduced, in the ability of a student to choose further education or an occupation without random trial and error behavior, or in the ability of a student from a welfare family to find nonsubsidized and continuing employment. In general, research and evaluation studies in guidance and counseling have been content to study criteria such as achievement, rehabilitation, or job placement without placing these phenomena into cost–benefit terms, but that does not mean the latter do not exist.

Cost–benefit analyses of guidance, counseling, and related processes are not easy, particularly when their purposes are developmental or preventive. For example, the criterion behaviors on which guidance and counseling make an impact may serve to reduce social pathology in the future. But if that is so, how do you assign costs to such possible social pathology, when do you assign a base year for such calculations, and how do you demonstrate that preventive or developmental approaches to guidance and counseling have significantly added to what normally might have occurred through maturation?

In order to arrive at such cost–benefit determinations, extrapolation from current indicators of social pathology in the population and from demonstrated effects of guidance and counseling must be joined.

When considering cost–benefits of guidance and counseling either in terms of prevention or treatment, it is equally important to determine the implied as well as the specific economic effectiveness of guidance programs. Such measures need to include monetary as well as nonmonetary benefits. The following might be representative of such benefits (McDonnell, Swisher, & Hu, 1978).

Private Benefits: Those benefits received by individuals in the form of improvement in scholastic achievement, less dependency on drug use, increase in labor market activity.

External Benefits: Those benefits derived by a third party (family, employers, school) from the changed behavior of the individual. For example, if a school counselor were successful in preventing 10 students per year from dropping out of school, the school would continue to receive the state reimbursement associated with some weighted form of average daily membership. Thus, if a state's aid ratio is $1,200 per student per year, retention of these 10 students would represent an economic benefit of $12,000 minus the estimate of costs (x number of counselor hours × counselor salary and fringe benefits per hour) to achieve such a result. Such external benefit calculations would be in addition to the private benefits to the students themselves (e.g., added income likely throughout their lives if they remain in school to graduate—conservative estimate $2,000 per year × 45 years working life = $90,000) and the related social benefits.

Social Benefits: Those benefits that go beyond private or external benefits but accrue in broader terms to society as a whole. Examples might include reductions in psychological injuries or general social anxiety or inconvenience to other persons from specific individual behavior.

As various dollar values are estimated for the private, external, and social benefits resulting from guidance and counseling, it is likely that the cost–benefit ratios substantially favor guidance and counseling. But, it is also obvious that there are likely to be other outcomes even more difficult to calculate deriving from the provision of effective guidance and counseling.

While many of the benefits of guidance and counseling can be measured in monetary terms, many others cannot. Changes in personal satisfaction, feelings of competence, or improvements in interfamily functioning are difficult to measure monetarily, even though they clearly are outcomes that can be expected to occur.

Across the various benefit categories that might be associated with the application of guidance and counseling to different types of problems, there are a number of impact evaluations indices that reflect the long term potential of guidance and counseling. As suggested earlier, both in the few longitudinal

studies of guidance and counseling that have been conducted and on the basis of conceptual logic, it is likely that the preventive or developmental aspects of guidance and counseling will have long-term effects on student attitudes, knowledge, choice making, and other behavior, but it is not easy to make the extended time connections required to demonstrate the effects clearly. Nevertheless, such indices might include changes in:

Future welfare payments
Work loss, absenteeism, or unemployability
Drug use
Incarceration
Socially undesirable behavior
School attendance
Scholastic performance
Mental illness
Medical treatment
Earning differential

Impact evaluation of the primary prevention aspects of guidance and counseling includes the costs that might otherwise arise from treating or curing the dysfunction and the negative effects which accompany it (McDonnell, Swisher, & Hu, 1978). Certainly, the estimation of such benefits is more difficult than is the estimation of costs. Such programs cannot be dealt with in the limited terms that are true of a pure experiment: limited in time, with finite samples and controlled conditions. Extrapolating the likely long-term costs of guidance and counseling is a much messier problem. Nevertheless, if the potential of guidance and counseling is to be fully understood and accepted by policy makers in government and education, systematic attempts to isolate such likely long-term benefits of guidance and counseling must be forthcoming in the future.

A typical example of an approach to cost–benefit analysis related to a short-term developmental guidance approach to school vandalism took place in Los Angeles.

Mayer and Butterworth (1979) studied the cost–benefit and related effects of a preventive approach to school violence and vandalism in 19 elementary schools in Los Angeles. As of 1978, more was spent on combating, or repairing the damage done by, vandalism in the Los Angeles schools than on textbooks. In that year, the Los Angeles Unified School District's Security Section, for example, had a budget of $5.5 million and 400 personnel. Beginning in October 1976, Mayer and Butterworth using four graduate students in school counseling and psychology began to work with 10 experimental schools and 9 control schools. All the schools, except for one in the experimental and one in the control conditions, were in areas of lower socioeco-

nomic populations, composed primarily of Black or Spanish-surnamed students or both. The two exceptions had 80%–90% White student populations. The procedures involved school counselors or school psychologists, teams of teachers and administrators, and the project consultants working in respective schools to identify and eliminate the conditions that foster school violence and vandalism and hinder academic and personal–social development. It was also the school counselor's or psychologist's responsibility to help develop classroom and school-wide programs that would teach students alternative behaviors to vandalism and violence and to involve the school staff and community in programs designed to reduce school violence and vandalism.

The outcomes were as follows:

1. The cost of vandalism for control schools averaged more than 7 times that of the experimental schools. The previous year's data provided by district offices indicated that the average vandalism cost for the experimental schools decreased 57% (from 1975–76 to 1976–77) while the average vandalism costs for the control schools increased 320%.

2. The mean decrease in classroom disruptive behavior was significantly more for the experimental schools than for the control schools.

3. The attending behavior of students in experimental schools increased significantly more than did such behavior in control schools.

4. Specific reinforcement of appropriate student behavior by teachers in experimental schools increased significantly more than did that of teachers in control schools.

When the cost–benefit ratios of guidance and counseling as treatments of specific problem behaviors, rather than as the developers of skills and attitudes that will prevent long-term developmental problems, are considered, the task is a bit easier, but many assumptions and extrapolations must still be made. The fact is, however, that reductions in recidivism rates in correctional institutions, in length of stay in psychiatric hospitals, or in sustained unemployment carry an economic factor creditable to the effectiveness of guidance and counseling. So, too, do increases in worker productivity and job satisfaction, holding power of schools and institutions of higher education, decreases in welfare and unemployment compensation, increases in family solidarity and concurrent decreases in divorce costs, foster home care for children, and related matters. These effects, which have been shown to result from guidance and counseling in either single or multiple studies, converge to affect significantly the growth in the Gross National Product of this nation, however difficult such connections are to make.

That such connections are now being made in fields allied to guidance and counseling can be illustrated by several examples. Cummings (1977) and several colleagues (e.g., Follette & Cummings, 1967; Cummings & Follette, 1968) have studied the economic feasibility of including psychotherapy within a comprehensive health system, the Kaiser Permanente Health Plan

which serves over 8 million subscribers in many parts of the nation. A basic stimulus to inclusion of psychotherapy in this health plan stems from the generally accepted statistic that 60% of visits to physicians occur from sufferers of emotional distress, not organic illness. As Cummings (1977) notes:

> Many, if not most, physical illnesses are the result of problems in living (or psychological, emotional distress including psychoneuroses and character disorders). The way we live, eat, drink, smoke, compete, and pollute relate inevitably to strokes, heart attacks, cirrhosis, migraines, suicide, and asthma to list only a few.... The way we live influences our bodies; conversely, chronic illness and intractable pain create a problem in living. Psychotherapy is a viable form of intervention that can alleviate problems in living and lessen disease, and it belongs in any comprehensive health service until that utopian moment when preventive techniques render it unnecessary. (p. 713)

Follette and Cummings (1967), Cummings and Follette (1968), and Cummings (1977) found such results as: There were significant declines in medical utilization in those emotionally distressed individuals who received psychotherapy; one session only with no repeat psychological visits can reduce medical utilization by 60% over the following 5 years and that a 75% reduction in medical utilization occurs over a 5-year period for patients initially receiving two to eight psychotherapy visits (brief therapy); when active, dynamic brief therapy is provided early, it is the treatment of choice for about 85% of the patients seeking psychotherapy; cost-therapeutically effective programs can be developed for groups with such problems in living as alcoholism, drug addiction, chronic psychosis, problems of the elderly, and severe character disorders.

Other studies tend to confirm the types of findings reported by Cummings and Follette. For example, Olbrisch (1977) quotes an unpublished study done at the Kennecott Copper Corporation in 1975 in which it was estimated that a return of $5.83 had occurred for each $1.00 spent per year for the firm's psychotherapy program. This financial impact was estimated from such results as reduced absenteeism, reduced hospital, medical, and surgical costs, and reduced costs of nonoccupational accident and illness.

Worrall (1978) studied the cost–benefit relationships in a vocational rehabilitation program for a national random sample of 3,743 rehabilitants and 1,063 unsuccessful closures after acceptance. Using a conservative model, he found that rehabilitation is generally returning more in productivity gains to society than the costs expended. On the average he found a benefit–cost ratio of 5 to 1, although this varied across subpopulations stratified by age, race, marital status, and other demographic characteristics.

Sussna (1977) estimated the costs–benefits of a community mental health center. He found a conservatively stated dollar value of social benefits over

costs in the mental health area (estimating productivity loss compared to costs of treatment and prevention in mental health) to be something in the order of 4.5–5:1 in favor of the community health programs.

A number of other pertinent cost–benefit studies could be cited to expand the points made here. That is not necessary. Rather, the studies cited here encompass findings on brief psychotherapy, rehabilitation, substance abuse treatment, and delivery of services in community mental health programs, all of which represent treatments and settings in which guidance and counseling practitioners are engaged, either in schools or in some other capacity.

The Training of Guidance Counselors

Much of what guidance and counseling have become in the schools and, to a large degree, what they will become is directly related to the character and the quality of the professional development of school counselors as well as the professional standards and ethics that guide their work.

The precise number of institutions preparing school counselors is not known. Of some 490 probable institutions, 453 responded to a 1977 survey by Hollis and Wantz (1977). From these data it was found that nearly 90% (407) of these institutions provide training for school counselors, although they may do so while also preparing counselors for rehabilitation agencies, colleges, and other settings. The total number of faculty members in counselor education increased from 706 in 1964 to 3,260 in 1977—an increase of 360% in about 13 years. The mean number of faculty members in counselor education increased from 2.2 per institution in 1964 to more than 7.6 by 1977. The least one can say is that there has been tremendous expansion during the past 15 years in the number of persons and institutions engaged in the preparation of school counselors.

The content of counselor education programs may be described in several ways. A frequently used distinction compares experiential with didactic. Using a definition of *experiential* as "experiences in working with materials, equipment, or clients" (p. 35), Hollis and Wantz found that the content emphases were ranked by counselor educators in the following ways in regard to their inclusion of experiential components:

1. Internship
2. Field Experience
3. Practicum and Advanced Practicum
4. Techniques and Prepracticum
5. Tests, Measurement, Research, and Statistics
6. Career and Information Processing
7. Theories
8. Principles (Hollis & Wantz, 1977, p. 38).

Looked at another way, Hollis and Wantz classified educational experiences provided in counselor education into eight categories. They were ranked and defined as shown in Figure 1.

Typically, programs designed to train elementary school counselors are differentiated to some degree in content and experience from those designed to train secondary school counselors. Hill's research (1973) would suggest that although there may be a common core of courses for both elementary and secondary school counselors, the points of differentiation are likely to occur in the practicum setting, psychological appraisal and testing techniques and instrumentation, child versus adolescent psychology, and courses in either elementary or secondary school guidance and counseling setting and processes.

The observations cited are directed primarily to master's level training. Stated certification standards for school counselors usually require graduate work beyond the baccalaureate that is typically equivalent to or slightly less than that expected of the master's degree. Thus, the major number of new entrants to school counseling, at either the elementary or the secondary school level, possess the master's degree. Relatively few school counselors hold the doctorate although it is not uncommon for directors of guidance or pupil-

Rank	Area	Definition
1	Cognitive Experiences	Readings, discussions, idea exchange, and presentations
2	Student Counselor	Serving as a counselor under supervision, such as in practicum
3	Participative	Serving as a group member, interviewee, counselee
4	Vicarious	Audio and video recordings, films, and other canned experiences
5	Perceptual	Observations, close circuit live and audio tapes, and field trips
6	Situational Simulation	Role-playing, sociodrama, psycho-drama, decision making games
7	Sole Professional	Internship, school or agency setting, research, serving as a consultant or supervisor under periodic supervision
8	Conjoint Experiences	Working with a professional person and sharing in duties and responsibilities such as teaching assistant or co-counselor

FIGURE 1

Classification of Educational Experiences Provided in Counselor Education (From Hollis & Wantz, 1977)

personnel services, particularly in large urban school districts, to hold the doctoral degree.

The descriptions provided about the characteristics of counselor education tell little about its quality, regulation, variance, or direction, and these are, of course, critical matters in understanding the current competencies of school counselors and how well they will be trained in the future. One specific fact that is both obvious and troublesome is that there is considerable variance in the quality of the training school counselors receive from institution to institution and from state to state (Jones, 1975). A major explanation for this circumstance is that there are great differences in certification standards for school counselors from state to state and in the regulation of school counselor preparation.

Some state departments of education do have a program-review process by which they cause counselor education programs to articulate their goals for students, how these will be met, and the evaluative evidence available. Other states have no counselor education program review mechanism at all. Some states use a competency-based approach to school counselor certification and, accordingly, counselor education institutions in such states are likely to provide a partial or total competency-based program of counselor education. Some states use as their evaluative criteria for counselor education the standards of preparation adopted by APGA; others do not.

While no national accreditation of counselor education programs has been achieved in a systematic way, the American Personnel and Guidance Association has spawned a Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs which is currently engaged in in-depth evaluation of counselor education programs throughout the country. Clearly, there is a process of strengthening school counselor education and bringing the quality of such training up to even higher standards of supervised training. Although the data are fragmentary, it seems appropriate to suggest that the quality of training provided to school counselors in the major universities around the country is at a level of quality equal to that provided to other professionals in the helping services (e.g., psychologists, social workers). Since during the expansive years of the 1960s and 1970s when many smaller colleges began to train counselors with limited numbers of staff, the variance in quality in such institutions is greater because of the differences in standards applied to them and the differences in their available resources. Again, state by state variation occurs.

In sum, it seems fair to suggest that the quality of school counselor training has rapidly matured. Students are typically engaged in master's level, competency-based programs designed to meet the standards of preparation promulgated by the profession. The days of potential school counselors collecting course credits in a random way without significant supervision of their counseling skills are rapidly ending. In the observation of many of the major leaders

in the field, the school counselor being trained today is much more skilled than was his or her counterpart of a decade or more ago (e.g., Goldman, Carroll, Forsyth, Muro, & Graff, 1978).

The Need for School Counselors

With the lack of a guidance and counseling unit in the U.S. Department of Education that can monitor national needs in school counseling and related status issues, it is difficult to speak very effectively to the future need for school counselors.

The U.S. Department of Labor reported that in 1978 there were some 75,000 school, employment, rehabilitation, and college counselors (Shertzer, 1982). Other data from the National Center for Education Statistics and the U.S. Census Bureau (Shertzer, 1982) report a higher figure of persons who describe themselves as counselors. In either case, these figures probably represent 80,000 to 90,000 guidance counselors now working on a full or part-time basis in the elementary and secondary schools of the nation. That figure sounds impressive until one realizes that these persons are serving approximately 15,111,000 secondary school students in 21,875 secondary school buildings and 31,819,000 elementary school students in 72,475 buildings (Pinson, Gysbers, & Drier, 1981). Thus, aside from the alleged gross numbers of counselors available, counselor-to-student ratio at the secondary school level across the nation is probably about 1 to 425 and, at the elementary school level, 1 counselor for every 6 elementary schools. Such averages obviously mean that many students and families in the United States have no access to guidance services either in the elementary or the secondary schools.

A recent document jointly published by the American Personnel and Guidance Association and the American Vocational Association (Pinson et al., 1981) has noted the following:

> One major problem that occurs is the uneven distribution of staff availability in certain settings. As an example, if one were to view the staffing profile and the availability of guidance programs in our nation's 7,000 rural and isolated schools, there would be a cause for alarm. It is estimated that in these locations, less than 10% of elementary students have access to guidance programs, while at the junior high and high school level less than 40 to 50% of these students have access to guidance programs. Furthermore, the staff is often only part-time employees and has little or no budget specifically for guidance.
>
> In some of our largest states and cities the counselor–student ratios in public schools also are greater than the American Personnel and Guidance Association recommended ratio of 1 counselor for every

> 250 students. In a large Midwestern state the ratio at the high school level is 1 to 630. The average of combining the ratios of 4 of the 10 largest cities in the United States would approximate 1 to 740. (p. 3)

These figures can also be contrasted with the findings as early as 1959 by the Conant Commission on improving the American high school, which recommended a ratio of 1 school counselor to every 250 students, or the 1971 White House Conference on Youth, which recommended a ratio of 1 counselor to 50 students. Except in rare instances, even in the days of strong fiscal support for guidance and counseling from the National Defense Education Act, we have never committed sufficient resources to begin to approach a ratio of 1 counselor to 250 or fewer students in the United States.

Given the above observations, how does one answer the question of need effectively? Part of the answer lies with available studies suggesting that the demands by students for guidance services exceed their availability (e.g., Prediger, Roth, & Noeth, 1973). Part of the answer lies in the recognition that in the face of severe economic cuts, many school districts are refusing to cut counselors. Part of the answer lies in the recognition that in a time of rapid social changes, single parent families, dual career families, substance abuse, intensified threats of nuclear destruction, economic exigencies requiring both parents to be out of the home to maintain economic survival, shifting achievement images, greater occuptional diversity, and so forth, school counselors represent points of stability, confidentiality, information, and personalization in what is otherwise a frequently confused, sometimes abusive and uncaring society. Is there a need for effective, highly trained school counselors? I find it very difficult to answer in any way other than the affirmative.

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